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ABSTRACT

In recent years, the role of study abroad in development has been the object of increasing examination, as part of the general critique of assistance programs undertaken by international agencies in preparation for the Second Development Decade. This review, by emphasizing the importance of the human role in development, has raised questions as to the more efficient use of educated manpower, the under employment of trained people, the 'brain drain', and how education and training, whether undertaken at home or abroad, could make a greater contribution to the total development of a country. The aim of this monograph is to review the study abroad problem, in order that educational planners and administrators -- particularly in developing countries -- might be informed of some of the recent thinking on the subject. Certain suggestions are made which may help in the more efficient planning and administration of study abroad in the framework of total educational and development planning. (Author/MW)

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Study abroad and educational development

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William D. Carter

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Fundamentals of educational planning

The booklets in this series are written primarily for two groups: those engaged in—or preparing for—educational planning and administration, especially in developing countries; and others, less specialized, such as senior government officials and civic leaders, who seek a more general understanding of educational planning and of how it can be of help to over-all national development. They are devised to be of use either for private study or in formal training programmes.

The modern conception of educational planning has attracted specialists from many disciplines. Each of them tends to see planning rather differently. The purpose of some of the booklets is to help these people explain their particular points of view to one another and to the younger men and women who are being trained to replace them some day. But behind this diversity there is a new and growing unity. Specialists and administrators in developing countries are coming to accept certain basic principles and practices that owe something to the separate disciplines but are yet a unique contribution to knowledge by a body of pioneers who have had to attack together educational problems more urgent and difficult than any the world has ever known. So other booklets in the series represent this common experience, and provide in short compass some of the best available ideas and experience concerning selected aspects of educational planning.

Since readers will vary so widely in their backgrounds, the authors have been given the difficult task of introducing their subjects from the beginning, explaining technical terms that may be commonplace to some but a mystery to others, and yet adhering to scholarly standards and never writing down to their readers, who, except in some particular speciality, are in no sense unsophisticated. This approach has the advantage that it makes the booklets intelligible to the general reader.

The series was originally edited by Dr. C.E. Beeby of the New Zealand Council for Educational Research in Wellington. It is currently under the general editorship of Professor Lionel Elvin, Director of the Institute of Education of the University of London.

Although the series has been planned on a definite pattern, no attempt has been made to avoid differences, or even contradictions, in the views expressed by the authors. It would be premature, in the Institute's view, to lay down a neat and tidy official doctrine in this new and rapidly evolving field of knowledge and practice. Thus, while the views are the responsibility of the authors, and may not always be shared by Unesco or the Institute, they are believed to warrant attention in the international market-place of ideas. In short, this seems the appropriate moment to make visible a cross-section of the opinions of authorities whose combined experience covers many disciplines and a high proportion of the countries of the world.

Preface

To study abroad for a while has long been recognized as a desirable part of anyone's education, but, when a country sets out to modernize its society, what was a matter of private choice for those who could afford it becomes an indispensable part of public policy. That is why what Mr. Carter reasonably calls the study-abroad 'movement' has taken on such importance in the last twenty-five years.

It would not be true to say that we are still at the simple stage of recognizing the need for programmes of fellowships and travel grants without any planning of their relationship to 'development', but if there is recognition of the need for such a planned relationship its realization leaves very much to be desired. There have been many criticisms of existing programmes. The selection of fellowship holders has too often not been well done; their placement in foreign countries has often led to disappointment; their employment on their return home (if they have indeed returned) has too often not been compatible with putting their experience abroad to the best use. There is a multiplicity of programmes without proper co-ordination among themselves and without a well-enough planned relationship to the development purposes that presumably both donor and receiver countries have in mind. Mr. Carter has been in the forefront of the re-thinking that has been taking place about all this (particularly in relation to the programmes of the international agencies) in the last three years.

The essence of this re-thinking is that study abroad is not a thing in itself, but must be seen in its proper context. The important words are study and training, not 'abroad'. You utilize the opportunity to study abroad (even though it may be good for its own sake) primarily because further education and training are necessary and the opportunities in certain fields are not adequate in your own country. The education and training are for a purpose: it may be a general purpose, such as the raising of the level of university education, or

a little more specifically of medical or agricultural education, or of teacher training; or it may be a specific purpose to give a particular project (like the establishment of an agricultural credit bank, or a centre for child study, or an inspectorate of rural schools) the possibility of being run entirely by local people after its initial phase. Internationally, study abroad is a logically subsidiary part of an aid programme, not a self-sufficient virtuous enterprise.

Yet the initiation and administration of a fellowships programme is a complicated business, needing not only sound general principles but experienced care in dealing with each individual case. So both bilateral and international agencies have set up their own fellowships divisions or offices. A constant effort is needed to see that these do not become rather separate entities immersed in their own expertise. The problem of deciding how far they should have their own sections for evaluating their work, for research into its effects, for daily co-ordination with the rest of an aid enterprise, is a very difficult one administratively. What is clear is that fellowship programmes for study abroad, although no doubt by a variety of means, must become more consciously part of general programmes of education and training and clearly related to their purposes, and that study and training (whether at home or abroad as circumstances suggest) must be made more consciously part of the whole effort at educational and general development. How to do this, how to plan it in donor and receiving countries and in the international agencies, is what this monograph is about.

Mr. Carter is well qualified to write it. He has been in this from the start. An American with education not only in his own country but in India, the United Kingdom and Geneva, he was in charge of the Exchange of Persons Service of Unesco from 1947 to 1962 and until 1965 was Director of the Department of International Exchanges and those who benefited (either personally or as administrators) from his work know how he always saw it not as a self-sufficient empire but as a service to others. Since his retirement he has been a consultant in international affairs to the State University of New York and a consultant on training to the United Nations Development Programme. This monograph is the distillation of the ideas, shared now with many others, which have inspired the 'drive' which he has always shown in this indispensable international activity.

H. L. ELVIN
General editor of the series

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Part One

Introduction

In most countries today, a period of study or training in a foreign country is a feature of the education of an increasing number of men and women and no more so than in the developing countries.

For the past twenty-five years, the number of individuals going abroad for study has expanded as massively as other aspects of education. The world-wide dissemination of scientific knowledge and technology, the influences of different cultures and of the international economy—all these converge with marked intensity on individuals who have experienced directly the 'wider world' through study abroad. It is through them, particularly, that the combination of the new and the unfamiliar merge with the more immediate influences and realities of the domestic scene. Those who have studied abroad are for the most part in positions of actual or potential leadership. They play a crucial role in decreasing the dependence of the developing countries on expatriate officials, advisers and specialists—so as to build up in the shortest possible time their own cadres of administrators, teachers and researchers, as well as preparing individuals for careers in business, industry and commerce.

In education especially, a period of study abroad can be a crucial factor; it is through the insights of the teacher that the experiences and influences of the world outside may be most intimately and vividly brought to bear in the curriculum and in the classroom.

The role of study abroad in educational and economic development in general has not been the subject of systematic study or attention by educational planners. This has not been due to any lack of appreciation of its relevance to development, but because other problems seem to have taken precedence. For many planners, the urgency of

'immediate' problems has tended to crowd out attention to programmes which involve those individuals whose contribution to development is potential rather than actual. Also, because of the complexities of the planning and administration of study and training abroad, together with the diffuseness of much of its administration, full advantage has not always been taken of this potentially rich resource for development.

In recent years, however, the role of study abroad in development has been the object of increasing examination, as part of the general critique of assistance programmes undertaken by international agencies in preparation for the Second Development Decade. This review, by emphasizing the importance of the human role in development, has raised questions as to the more efficient use of educated manpower, the under-employment of trained people, the 'brain drain', and how education and training, whether undertaken at home or abroad, could make a greater contribution to the total development of a country.

The aim of this monograph is to review the study-abroad problem, so that educational planners and administrators, particularly in developing countries, may be informed of some of the recent thinking on the subject. Certain suggestions will then be put forward, which may help in the more efficient planning and administration of study abroad in the framework of total educational and development planning.

Part Two

Some facts

It was following World War II that the massive expansion of the study abroad movement began. Since 1947 Unesco has undertaken research into the experience of many countries through its periodical publication *Study abroad*, now in its nineteenth edition,[1] and has made systematic statistical surveys of the numbers of individuals going abroad for study.

A culmination of these investigations took place in 1972 with a massive study by the Unesco Office of Statistics[2] which contains an analysis from 1950 to 1968 of foreign student enrolments at the university level. The survey, based upon replies from the countries of study, includes statistical estimates on the major countries and regions receiving students from abroad, student movements between developed and developing countries, trends in the fields of study undertaken in different countries and regions, and the numbers of foreign students in relation to total national enrolments in third-level education. The Appendix contains selected summary tables from this study describing the major trends and the numbers involved. From these, and from detailed statistical information covering 150 countries and territories, also contained in the volume, a number of major findings have been developed. The following are the most notable:

1. There were an estimated 108,000 students abroad in 1950, 238,000 in 1960, 429,000 in 1968—an increase of some 300 per cent over

1. *Study abroad: international scholarships and courses*, Paris, Unesco, 1970 (Vol. XIX).
2. *Statistics of students abroad, 1962-68*, Paris, Unesco, 1972.

the nineteen-year period. (The latest data suggest a figure of over 500,000 for 1970.) Commenting on this expansion, the study notes: 'the most important expansion, in relative terms, took place between the years 1950-60, when the average annual increase was 9.7 per cent. Since then, the rate has decreased to 8 per cent for the period 1960-65, and 7.1 per cent for the years 1965-68. This trend is likely to continue. It appears that some of the major host countries of foreign students, in particular the Federal Republic of Germany, the United Kingdom, the United Arab Republic, Japan and Austria, have reached some level of saturation as regards the capacity of their institutions to absorb a larger number of foreign students. In fact, a number of countries have been forced to take measures to limit the access to higher education... in respect to certain fields of study (medicine and engineering in particular), foreign and national students being equally affected.' At the same time, as a matter of policy, a number of countries are seeking to train more of their university students at home.

2. Institutions in the European countries have provided the greatest attraction to students from abroad, with almost half of all foreign students enrolled in European institutions during 1950-60. In more recent years, Europe's role has been diminishing, with North American countries gaining a larger proportion of the expanding movement (1960, 31 per cent; 1969, 33.5 per cent).
3. During the period 1962-68, more than three-quarters of all foreign students were studying in 'developed' countries, and one-quarter in 'developing' countries. However, the latter are increasing their proportion of the total (1950, 20.3 per cent; 1968, 24.3 per cent).
4. During the period 1962-68, foreign students represented some 2 per cent of all students enrolled in third-level education, with regions such as Africa and the Arab States accounting for more than 10 per cent of students enrolled in third-level institutions in these regions.
5. Of the total foreign student population over the period 1950-68, the largest number came from Asia (over 40 per cent), followed by Europe (20 per cent), Africa (10-11 per cent) and North American countries (13 per cent). In the Arab countries students enrolled abroad represented almost 20 per cent of all national students enrolled at home or abroad in third-level education. For African countries the proportion was about 15 per cent.
6. The more detailed survey in 1966 showed that when related to

the total national students (enrolled at home or abroad), almost 30 per cent of African students enrolled in the natural sciences and more than 20 per cent of those enrolled in the medical sciences received training abroad. Other similar proportions are found for Arab students, particularly for the natural and medical sciences.[1]

Subsidizing students abroad

The expansion of opportunities for international study has been made possible since World War II mainly by the provision of fellowships and study grants by governments, international organizations, foundations, universities and private bodies. An analysis of the number and types of awards available for 1966 is contained in Volume XVII of *Study abroad*. Tables 1 and 2 show the categories of donors and beneficiaries of 176,890 grants reported, where figures have been provided by the donors. From a study of those offers where numbers are not specified, the editors estimated that approximately 216,000 opportunities for study abroad were available for 1966.

TABLE 1. Assuming a total of 176,890 grants: the proportions offered by various types of donor

Donors	Number of awards	Percentage
United Nations Family	8 132	4.60
Other international organizations	20 743	11.73
Governments	93 855	53.06
Foundations	8 949	5.06
Educational institutions	25 189	14.24
Others	20 022	11.31
TOTAL	176 890	100

1. The Unesco survey suggests certain aspects of study abroad which might be clarified by further research: (1) an estimate of those students who are being supported by their own or foreign governments, or other bodies, and those who are abroad under their own resources; (2) an estimate of the numbers abroad not engaged in academic work, but enrolled in on-the-job training in businesses, factories, government offices, etc. Such information is particularly important for all agencies engaged in development work.

TABLE 2. Awards for nationals to study abroad and awards for foreign nationals to study in the donor country

Beneficiaries	Number of awards	Percentage
Awards to own nationals	35 739	24.15
Awards to foreign nationals	105 574	71.33
Beneficiary not specified	6 702	4.52
TOTAL	148 015[1]	100

1. Awards totalling 28,875 from the United Nations and other international organizations are excluded from this total.
SOURCE *Study abroad*, Paris, Unesco, 1968 (Vol. XVII, page 633).

These figures show the important role of public bodies (international and national) in the financing of study abroad and the approximate relationship between offers from domestic and non-domestic sources.

The large proportion of the offers to foreign nationals reflect the investment in study and training abroad made by governments and other organizations for development purposes, as well as those figuring in governmental cultural relations activities or in fields not included in development assistance programmes. Offers to 'own nationals' by developing countries were predominantly for development purposes.[1]

1. Early in Unesco's Exchange of Persons Programme, a study was made of the 'stated aims' of the fellowships reported in Volume II of *Study abroad* (1951). The problem was discussed in greater detail in a paper prepared for Unesco by the late John F. Embree, Professor of Anthropology at Yale University, entitled *Exchange of persons directed by cultural charge*. The various 'stated aims' were summarized by Professor Embree as follows: (a) to promote closer relationships between citizens of various regions; (b) to promote national development through technical training; (c) to improve international understanding; (d) to assist an individual's own scientific or cultural education; (e) to facilitate the interchange of ideas by assisting leading specialists, educators, artists, etc., to meet colleagues abroad. (See page 23 for further discussion on problems of institutional and individual objectives in study programmes.)

Towards new directions in study-abroad policy and administration

In the reappraisal of international assistance which took place in the second half of the 1960s, questions were asked concerning the adequacy of the methods used, particularly in the area of the transfer of knowledge and skills. In this context, the reappraisal of the study-abroad programmes has highlighted two major problems which have characterized the experience of the past twenty years. They are: (a) the 'brain drain' which is related in part to the massive training of talented manpower in foreign countries; (b) failings due to the dispersion of many aspects of the planning, administration and use of opportunities for study and training abroad.

1. The brain drain

Despite the continued demand for national staffs to man local institutions, the increasing numbers of people pursuing higher studies, both at home and abroad, have outrun the domestic employment opportunities in many countries. Extensive research on this problem has been undertaken by Unitar, Unesco and a special committee of the organization Education and World Affairs. The results of these studies have been summed up by Dr. Dael Wolfle, a distinguished American expert on high-level manpower, who makes these points:[1]

1. That talented individuals move across frontiers to improve their own professional careers; the world gains from the concentration of such skills where they can be used most effectively. While this may benefit the 'receiving' country, the 'losing' country foregoes the services of engineers, scientists, physicians, managers, etc., who are thus not available to meet urgent needs at home. But domestic needs do not guarantee the effective use of trained talent, as the problem is not the need, but whether the economy is able to employ these individuals effectively to meet this need.
2. Not all developing countries face the problem to the same extent. Certain countries such as South Korea, Taiwan, the Philippines,

1. Dael Wolfle, *The uses of talent*, Princeton, N.J., Princeton University Press, 1971.

India, Pakistan, Egypt and others, have been among the major 'losers', but many others have not had such heavy losses, which may point to their competence or to certain conditions which enable them to make effective use of such talent.

3. Dr. Wolfle concludes that the developing countries themselves have the primary task of working out ways of reducing the flow abroad, not only by improving the financial rewards, but, equally important, by improving the conditions of work of talented manpower through increasing opportunities for advancement, facilities to communicate with fellow professionals abroad, and through other means. He points out that 'many professionals have been repatriated at substantial loss in income, as soon as attractive opportunities become available at home'.
4. Admittedly, the developed countries should not depend so heavily on foreign talent (notably in medicine) and should increase their facilities for training their own professionals. But, Dr. Wolfle concludes, the main problem 'is to get at the causes' of the brain drain, which are mainly found in the less developed countries themselves. This applies as much to the effective use of all qualified talent, whether they figure in the external brain drain, or are trained at home only to find a lack of openings for satisfactory employment in line with the training they have received.

2. Dispersion

A second problem is the extreme dispersion or compartmentalization in the planning and administration of study abroad programmes in almost all their aspects. As has been shown in the section on the financing of study abroad, most governments in developing countries have established their own programmes of overseas training and fellowships. At the same time, they receive a number of offers of fellowships from outside sources, either as separate opportunities for study abroad, or as part of internationally assisted projects. Such offers from foreign governments, foundations, universities, etc., are not adequately co-ordinated in their objectives, administrative conditions or procedures with the government's own programmes, training needs and priorities. This may lead to confusion and waste, not only educationally but in terms of the country's own priorities. Some countries, overwhelmed with outside offers, have not been

willing to accept them for lack of qualified candidates; others have accepted them as opportunities 'not to be missed', even if it has resulted in selecting unqualified candidates in fields which do not meet the candidate's or the country's needs. In addition, in some cases the lack of co-ordination of study-abroad opportunities encourages potential candidates to 'shop around' for opportunities with the greatest financial advantages, or as possible openings for the search for overseas employment, with little regard for their educational benefits or the contribution to national development.

Where study-abroad opportunities are 'built into' development projects themselves, to train staff and specialists needed for such projects, in too many cases the 'training component' is not adequately planned or phased to advance the project effectively. Either suitable trainees are not available or are insufficiently identified with the project; experts are not adequately involved in the training aspects of their missions.

Commenting on this dispersion, Albert Waterston states: 'Frequently scholarships and fellowships for training abroad are awarded on an *ad hoc* basis in inappropriate fields or in unsuitable universities or, from the point of view of national interest, to the wrong persons. This often leads to inadequate or improper training ... unnecessarily long absences of key government officials from their jobs, or, where no prior commitment is made to return home for a stipulated period after the completion of foreign training, to the emigration of well-trained professionals ... But experience shows that even when done in the recipient country, co-ordination by supplying agencies is unlikely to be effective unless the country itself has first co-ordinated its own agencies' technical assistance requests.'[1]

1. Albert Waterston, *Development planning: the lessons of experience*, London, Oxford University Press, 1966 (pages 397-398).

Part Three

Measures for more effective study- and training-abroad programmes

This summary of the dimensions of the study-abroad movement and of some of the major problems surrounding it, provides a basis for considering some of the steps which may be taken to make this crucial investment a more effective instrument for development. Current thinking in the broader area of educational planning suggests that problems associated with the expansion of educational systems—the number of students, consequent needs for additional resources, more differentiated curricula and teaching methods and materials—must be met with new responses in planning and administration. Philip Coombs, in his monograph *What is educational planning?*, puts it this way: 'Planning that merely serves a strategy of linear expansion will no longer do; planning must now serve a strategy of educational change and adaptation. This will require new types of planning concepts and tools which are only now taking shape.'[1]

The discussions of an International Committee of Experts on Training Abroad Policies, convened by Unesco in October 1971, went far in suggesting some 'new planning concepts and tools' with respect to study abroad. Confirming the compartmentalization and frequently *ad hoc* nature of many study-abroad programmes, the committee stressed the need for a more integrated approach to training. This could be defined as follows:

1. That study-abroad programmes, of whatever type or duration, gained in effectiveness if they were planned and administered as part of a total training effort, whether the training was undertaken

1. Philip H. Coombs, *What is educational planning?*, Paris, Unesco: IIEP, 1970 (Fundamentals of educational planning No. 1).

within the country, the region or further afield, and whether it responded to the requirements of a project or to general needs for qualified professionals.

2. Such an 'integrated approach' required, as far as possible, the understanding and co-operation of the national officials sponsoring the project, nationals associated with the project, the foreign experts working on the project, and those agencies, domestic or foreign, contributing financial or other assistance.
3. Improved planning and administration of the training aspect of particular projects, undertaken on a wide scale, could provide the basis for a broad training policy or manpower plan, as well as providing for the more efficient use of individuals already trained.

Specific ways of implementing these ideas were suggested to the Committee of Experts in a paper provided by the United Nations Development Programme. This defined seven interrelated tasks which might 'serve as a framework of new policies, and work on which, separately or in combination, would form the basis of a programme of action in improving the effectiveness of training for development'.[1] While the paper addressed itself primarily to the training work of the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), the tasks defined in it are equally applicable to training programmes in general.

The seven tasks outlined in the paper stressed the need: (1) to promote greater recognition of the centrality of training in development programmes; (2) to improve knowledge of training activities which could improve co-ordination and suggest new approaches in the field of training; (3) to improve awareness of ways whereby needs and priorities could be identified more effectively; (4) to improve the planning of training programmes in general and the training component of specific projects; (5) to improve the capacity of outside experts and 'trainers of trainers' to perform their role as communicators of knowledge and skills; (6) to improve the training of local experts or 'counterparts' on projects; (7) to improve the quality of the administration of international training (fellowships, study grants, training courses) at the national, regional and inter-regional levels.

1. Unesco/ED71, Conf. 8/5, Annexe VI.

1. Implementing the seven tasks

The centrality of training

A broad scale policy of reinforcement and innovation in the whole area of training assumes an understanding of the central role of training in development on the part of the country. Equally important, however, is recognition that a more numerical expansion will not, in itself, be most productive. The Unesco Committee of Experts recognized this in recommending that: 'Member States should be invited by Unesco to strengthen and create appropriate organs for short-term and long-term planning in the field of training'; and to this end, Unesco should 'assist Member States who express the desire, to identify their priorities in different fields of training and to formulate a national training policy'. The scope of a 'national training policy' should not only encompass the contribution of domestic training institutions—universities, technical schools and research institutions—and of internationally assisted projects which have specifically educational and training objectives, but should also focus on the training requirements of projects with different aims. Where experts and consultants have had to concentrate on the planning and administration of projects, the building up of the necessary infrastructure of trained people to maintain and advance projects needs special consideration in an over-all training policy.

Information and evaluation of training programmes

The building up of such an over-all training policy requires the systematic collection of information on training programmes, their content and conditions, both at home and abroad. Although it is expedient for each country to provide itself with the most complete picture of its own training resources and institutions, all can profit from a greater knowledge of what is being undertaken in other countries. Ignorance of similar activities taking place elsewhere of possible relevance to local needs also limits the possibility of new approaches and experiments. The information available in international development agencies can be helpful for this particular problem, as it is based on an operational experience in training in many countries and on information and research carried out over

many years. It can also be valuable since it relates to training methods and techniques; what has proved useful in one field or region may be applicable in other specialties or countries.

Many of the Specialized Agencies have published information on courses and other training facilities related to development problems in their Member States—either organized by themselves or by national bodies. Knowledge of these opportunities can be particularly valuable as they are organized to meet the specific interests of countries in the process of development and are not ordinarily part of the regular curricula or programmes of the national institutions sponsoring them. Many of these courses provide useful comparative knowledge, not readily available to each country independently.

Such information also provides a basis for judging how fellowships and places in courses offered by foreign agencies may be co-ordinated with domestic training facilities. This is of particular importance in negotiating with foreign donors, so that these opportunities meet real needs and, where possible, complement what is available at home.

The quality of this judgement is so crucial in building up an economic use of training facilities that a word must be said about a key element in it, namely, an understanding of the goals, implicit and explicit, of study-abroad programmes.

The goals of study-abroad programmes

An opportunity for study abroad can be judged by what it sets out to do. Such an assessment can be made according to two basic criteria, the potential contribution of the programme to the personal growth of the individual, *from his point of view*, and how it meets the purpose of the donor institution (national or foreign government, international organization, foundation, university, etc.). Each of these two objectives co-exist, explicitly or implicitly, in each opportunity for training. Each may weigh differently in the mind of the individual trainee and in the intent of the grant-making agency. If, for example, a fellowship aims to enable an individual to improve his artistic or musical talent, its objective will be attained, both personally and institutionally, by the trainee's later success as a painter or musician. If the award is established to help an institution, or particular project, it will be successful to the extent that the trainee contributes effectively to the institution or project. The 'brain drain' problem illustrates, in part,

how an opportunity for study abroad, which may initially have been intended to upgrade an institution, may have been so successful in improving an individual's knowledge, that his personal objective has ultimately taken precedence and he has been able to take up a profitable career abroad.

The importance of a clear understanding of the objectives of an award can be illustrated by some examples:

In an assistance project in rural education, a foreign expert encouraged the farmers in his area to supplement their income by cultivating vegetables. The enterprise was sufficiently successful to justify the setting up of a canning factory to preserve the produce and to sell the surplus, for which there was a ready market. A fellowship was authorized to train an individual abroad on how to set up and administer the factory. On his way to his assignment, the chosen individual requested a change in his programme to a degree course in teacher training. As he was a member of the staff of the Ministry of Education in his country, such a degree was more attractive to him in terms of his ultimate career than obtaining the knowledge needed to set up and operate the canning factory.

Another case illustrates how a government was totally involved with an international agency in assuring that outside assistance for training was focused on a specific objective. In the 1950s the government of Yugoslavia initiated a reform of its total educational system. To obtain a background of comparative experience of other countries to assist in the formulation of the new legislation, a programme of fellowships was organized to enable specialists in teacher training, educational research, educational films, educational planning and administration, who were preparing the basic legislation, to observe developments abroad. Over a three-year period, some 120 specialists studied in various European countries, in Canada and in the United States. An interesting feature of the project was an award in fellowship administration to a senior education official which enabled him to work in Unesco in planning and administering the programme. In the preface to the document containing the educational reform legislation, after passage through the Yugoslav Parliament, the Minister of Education noted the contribution of the Technical Assistance Study Abroad Programme to the work of the specialists who had been engaged in developing the reform legislation.

Training needs and priorities

In a review of *A study on the capacity of the United Nations development system*,[1] Lord Balogh stated that: 'one of the gravest defects of international aid is the lack of knowledge of the manpower requirements of the plans and the lack of co-ordination in the planning, the training and recruitment'.[2]

A comprehensive information system on training institutions and opportunities at home and abroad can provide the foundations of a programme for the determination of training needs and priorities. Here, the work of the various Specialized Agencies can be of assistance. The economic surveys undertaken by the World Bank in many developing countries include treatment of manpower needs in various sectors. In these surveys, the Specialized Agencies associated with the World Bank make their own contributions and estimates in their particular fields. These Agencies, and other more specialized organizations, such as the World Meteorological Organization and the International Telecommunications Union, have long studied the supply and needs for specialists in their particular fields, as well as of training institutions in their Member States. This network of information can provide a valuable background on which to base the determination of needs in particular fields. Such studies may also give some indications of employment opportunities for specialists who have already been trained and suggest related fields in which those who have received training abroad may adapt their skills to specific opportunities for employment.

The problem of determining priorities is discussed in Dr. Eugene Staley's book *Planning occupational education and training for development*, where he concludes a chapter on analysing needs with, among others, the following 'practical conclusions':[3]

'1. ... training programmes ... should be planned with reference to the priority needs of the employment system, not simply adopted haphazardly and piecemeal.

1. *A study of the capacity of the United Nations development system*, Geneva, United Nations, 1969 (The Jackson Report).
2. Donald Robins (Ed.), *Developing the third world*, [London], Cambridge University Press, 1971 (page 242).
3. Eugene Staley, *Planning occupational education and training for development*, New Delhi, Orient Longmans, 1970 (page 52).

2. Highest priority should be given to programmes which raise the quality and (to the extent necessary) the quantity of qualified personnel required in "multiplier occupations", for example, innovative organizers (entrepreneurs), managers and sub-managers, and selected types of professionals and sub-professionals, including teachers. These are the people who must create new enterprises and new jobs, establish essential governmental, educational, industrial and other infrastructures, and provide for education and training to meet the country's needs for qualified personnel.
3. In order to obtain a suitably balanced output of persons qualified for different occupational roles, there should be: (a) continuous study of the changing requirements of the developing country and (b) close linkages between the employment system on the one hand, and the education and training system on the other, so that there is immediate feed-back to correct errors in forecasts of requirements.'

The key problem posed by Dr. Staley is, of course, the articulation of the output of the educational system to the needs of the employment system. As we have suggested, much can be done within certain sectors or areas of high specialization, but on a broader basis the problem is more complex. It depends on more factors than simply the extent to which the educational system is training individuals with employable skills and on machinery adequate to link the available trained manpower to the specific needs of the employment market.

Where such a linkage is only partially feasible, improved planning and operation of the training component of individual projects can contribute important elements to more effective manpower planning and employment of trained people. For this reason, the next section deals with the planning of training in the context of projects.

The planning of training programmes in projects

In 1971, to improve the planning of the training component of its development projects, Unesco sent an Instruction to its project managers in the field, intended to 'show how to work out a training programme for a project that will not be conceived solely in terms of fellowships for study abroad'. The Instruction states in part:

> To ensure a more realistic training of national personnel, it is suggested that, for each project, a 'training programme' be estab-

lished from the outset. The training programme of a Unesco-Special Fund project does not consist only of fellowships for training abroad or simply aim at training counterparts. It embraces all the manpower required to be trained for the project to function successfully, which would include: (a) the Director, the Deputy-Director and administrative officers of the project; (b) when necessary, the officers responsible for social work, library and documentation, statistics, extra-mural activities, all your visual technicians, laboratory assistance, etc.; (c) in some countries where the experts are introducing innovations in the curriculum of an institute or in its teaching methods and techniques, or in its research work, the principal officers of the government department concerned (directors, inspectors, etc.) thus enabling the innovation to be introduced on a national level.

The training of national staff should follow a clearly established calendar, showing, step by step, the timing, type and nature of the training, the places and areas where the whole training programme could best be undertaken: (a) A number of national personnel could surely be trained in the country itself, (*i*) on the spot, i.e. working experts on the project, (*ii*) in special training courses, seminars, workshops organized by experts together with national specialists, (*iii*) in high schools, and university institutions available in the country; (b) Some of the national staff could receive an adequate training in a neighbouring country or in a regional institution; (c) Some of the national personnel should go abroad for further training which could start well in advance—i.e. two or three years before the actual operation of the project and the arrival of international experts; (d) Another sort of training (or re-training or in-service training) seems to be valuable and inexpensive: it consists of giving a national teacher on a project the opportunity of teaching for a semester or an academic year in a similar project in the region or abroad, or in a university to which his project would be affiliated.'

This Instruction illustrates not only how training can be an integral part, but also, in many cases, an 'integrating' part of a project. In addition, it may have important side effects; it may extend the influence of the project as those trained are able to 'fan out' in project-related employment; also, an imaginatively planned training programme may enable new ideas and methods to be introduced into the project or

beyond it. This may not be possible if the training element is planned in a routine or haphazard way. A few examples will illustrate this point:

a) *A novel approach to training university teachers*

In a Unesco project with the Republic of Mali, there is a need to provide individuals with doctoral qualifications, which cannot be obtained in institutions in the country. To avoid the usual long absences abroad generally required for such studies, a special curriculum has been devised through the advice of professors from abroad, who spend a total of six months of intensive work spread over the two years of the course. Candidates receive special tutorial instruction and intensive guidance on research from the visiting professors, which would not have been possible if attending an overseas university. During the absences of the visiting professors, the candidate's work is carried on independently under the supervision of lecturers. The examinations for the degree and the defense of theses are administered by an international panel of professors. Study tours abroad are arranged as part of the curriculum, to enable candidates to visit other centres of higher education, and to consult the foreign professors in their home institutions.

b) *Building a functional unit in an institution*

The Pan-American Health Organization (PAHO) of the World Health Organization, in its 'institutional fellowship programme' works out an agreement with the government and a particular medical school under which a senior specialist (minimum age 40 years) receives a grant of up to $8,000 a year over a period of three to five years, with the specific responsibility of establishing in his own institution a functional unit qualified to offer teaching research and other services in a particular medical specialty. The plan of the grant is worked out with the advice of PAHO specialists in the context of the institution's need, emphasizing the development of 'new trends and tendencies in teaching and research' in the field in question. The grant, supplemented by local financial support, enables the team leader to update his specialist knowledge through studies either in his own institution or abroad, and enables him to finance the training of assistants necessary for building up the unit. In this way, it is hoped that the institution in question will be enriched by sustained assistance which

places responsibility in the hands of a specialist over a period of years in the context of the needs of the institution.

c) *New ideas for a new institute*

In the Unesco-assisted Academy of Pedagogy in Ethiopia, a training programme was organized prior to the arrival of foreign experts under which fifteen future members of the faculty of the Academy spent a year in the Department of Education in Tropical Areas in the London University Institute of Education. The studies of each individual in the group were guided by a departmental tutor, a specialist with long experience in African education. The main focus of the seminar discussions and written papers during the year was on the educational programmes to be developed in the proposed Academy. A programme of lectures and observations of British educational institutions and problems was organized to provide comparative background, and the group took part in a general seminar on African education with colleagues from other African countries.

Through this intensive work on the educational problems and programme of the new Academy, in the framework of the comparative experience of another educational system, the group were prepared on their return to Ethiopia to work with foreign experts in devising the new programme and curricula needed by the new institute.

d) *A 'phased programme'*

For many years FAO, in co-operation with the Danish International Development Agency (DANIDA), has been organizing regional training courses in milk production and dairy techniques. The first course was held in India (1960), and subsequently courses have taken place in Chile (1960), the Lebanon (1964) and in Uganda and Kenya (1967). It is expected that courses will be started soon in Senegal and the Philippines.

These regional courses are followed-up systematically by tours by the Director and Assistant Director of the Dairy Technology Service of FAO, who visit every participant at least every second year at his place of work and evaluate his training.

From the pool of individuals trained in these courses, a limited number are selected on the basis of their performance, both during the course and on the job, to attend one of the advanced follow-up

courses held twice a year in Denmark, again under the joint sponsorship of FAO and DANIDA.

e) *Training to develop an export policy*

UNCTAD has devised an interesting set of courses in export promotion with the co-operation of the UN Regional Economic Commissions, and the International Trade Centre of GATT in Geneva. Prior to the commencement of the courses, an expert from UNCTAD meets with the prospective participants in their home countries to guide them in making studies of a particular product in their country which might be exported. This is prepared before the participant proceeds abroad. The course consists of a week of discussion at the Regional Economic Commission headquarters on trade problems of the region, followed by three weeks of seminars at the International Trade Centre at Geneva, when participants discuss with specialist consultants problems of the marketing of their specific projects. These are followed by a programme of consultations with marketing agencies and firms in various countries interested in the project. The course concludes in Geneva with a general evaluation of the seminars and consultations, and preparation by each participant of a report designed to advise his home government on problems of the marketing of the particular product. Thus, the course provides not only instruction in export planning in general, but also some of the practical experience needed in a trade promotion mission.

Other ideas are worthy of note:

f) The use of a period of study abroad for research on a particular problem related to development in the fellow's own country;
g) Study tours to enable trainees on projects to observe and participate in the work of similar projects in other countries;
h) Study tours to enable experts and trainees from developing countries to advise research institutions in developed countries on regional problems as well as to gain comparative knowledge or methodological information in their own areas of interest.

Experts as trainers

The increased local expertise available in many countries made possible by the study-abroad movement over the past twenty years is reflected in the lessened dependence in certain countries on con-

sultants and experts from abroad and, in many cases, increasing use of experts from the developing countries in international programmes, who are more familiar with local needs and conditions than those coming from further afield. In many cases, the role of the foreign expert is changing. In those countries where there was a dearth of local specialists and administrators, capable of performing executive and management functions, many outside experts undertook such duties, awaiting the training of persons with the necessary qualifications. Where the 'executive' role of the expert is declining, more is obviously expected of him as a source of technical knowledge and know-how, including a capacity to pass this on effectively. This, of course, is essential where projects are concerned with education and training as such. It is equally important in other projects where, as we have pointed out, the training component may have received inadequate attention. Thus the advisory and training functions of an expert should increase as his administrative or organizational role decreases.

However, many experts are chosen because of their particular specialist knowledge or familiarity with its organizational implications. Not all of them—except in specifically educational and training projects—are necessarily chosen because of their capabilities or experience as trainers. Here, the local expert or 'senior counterpart' working on the project, can perform a crucial role in suggesting ways of adapting the knowledge of the outside expert to local conditions. Frequently, the success of these adaptations can be judged through the effectiveness of the training work in a project in preparing the local specialists to take on the responsibility of the foreign experts.

Orientation programmes for foreign experts should give greater attention to the importance of adapting their technical knowledge and know-how to local situations—and emphasizing the training role of the expert. Here, orientation programmes can learn much from specialists from developing countries who have had practical experience in placing the knowledge and techniques, either gained abroad or from association with foreign experts, into the local context.

Counterpart training

Limited results of the training aspects of a project can, as we have suggested, be explained by inadequate emphasis on the training element at the planning stage; or to the short duration of the presence

of experts on the project; or to inadequate use of them in their role as trainers; it may be explained by difficulties in making available associates or counterparts.

The Unesco Instruction cited above attempts to emphasize the role of counterpart training by expanding the numbers and functions of those who should be considered for training; not limiting the number for immediate jobs on the project itself, but replacing those who may be drawn off for other work or who may be trained to prepare for additional projects in the same field (the 'multiplier effect').

This broadened conception of counterpart training necessarily puts greater demand on the experts in their training role on projects. It demands their greater attention in advising on suitable programmes for those who can profit from further experience outside the project, either in local institutions or further afield. Extensive training activity with counterparts on a project is, of course, a crucial element in determining their further needs for training and the type of programme necessary to prepare them for their future roles. Here, the expert should have access to full information on training facilities, suitable for the needs of the project. Information on such matters, therefore, should be made available to experts and project managers, either from their headquarters, or from training offices in the country where the project is located.

The complex of adjustments between the organizational, advisory and training functions of an expert in a development project are illustrated in the following description of an international assistance programme with strong training elements sponsored by the World Bank:[1]

> 'Training activities sometimes hold the balance between success and failure of a project. An example from Afghanistan shows exactly why staff training can resemble the nail in the horseshoe that eventually saved the rider.
>
> Agriculture provides a livelihood to 90 per cent of the people of Afghanistan. Machines and fertilizer are badly needed to help increase crop yield. The farmer needs credit to obtain these, so agricultural credit becomes the key to the door of a fuller granary.

1. Richard W. Van Wagenen, 'Training as an element in bank group projects' in *Finance and development*, Washington, D.C., International Monetary Fund and International Bank for Reconstruction and Development, 1972 (Vol. 9, No. 3, page 36).

It happens that funds are available, but trained manpower to distribute them is not. The Agricultural Development Bank of Afghanistan (AgBank) has a staff of about 250, largely inherited from an earlier entity. A United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) grant provides consultants to help reorganize the Bank into a modern credit institution. In addition, an IDA credit provides for expansion and upgrading of operations—that is, to enable AgBank to investigate more applications for credit and to do so more thoroughly. Not only is the IDA credit designed to support AgBank's lending programme but it also 'aims at institution building' in the words of the appraisal team. Initially, four expatriate consultants are holding the position of general manager and all three departmental managerships, but they are working with and training Afghan counterparts. There are also many noncounterpart trainees. Some are assembled in classes at AgBank headquarters for certain kinds of training and others are sent to the nearby Training Centre of the Programme on Agricultural Credit and Co-operatives in Afghanistan (PACCA) which is financed and run by the UN Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) and the Swedish International Development Authority (SIDA). The expatriates are extremely busy with two simultaneous jobs: pushing the reorganization and seeing that day-to-day operations are running better, even as they expand. There is little time for a third job—recruiting new staff and developing existing staff.

The management faces a dilemma: AgBank cannot do much staff training on the job until it becomes a functioning organization, yet it cannot become a functioning organization until it has a trained staff. If too much time is devoted to any one of these three jobs (reorganization, operation and training) the other two suffer. Yet if any one of them is neglected the project will be prolonged, and the expatriates cannot go home until much later than all parties would desire. Even with the part-time help of an Afghan professor from Kabul University, man-hours are too scarce to bring local staff members to a point where they can become trainers themselves and eventually take over management from the expatriates. AgBank is like an overloaded aircraft on a runway too short for take-off.

One solution is to bring in still more expatriates to carry out more training with the object of speeding the departure of all expatriates. Another measure is to send staff members for training abroad: one with a similar lending institution in Iran; two learning

tractor maintenance and repairs in the Soviet Union; and another working in a bank in Germany. In about a year a number of well-prepared staff members should be ready to go abroad for advanced training in accounting and credit.'

Improving the quality of administration

This final section will deal with the machinery needed to bring the elements of information and planning and the elements of the actual programme administration together; but, however competent the planning, however well organized the procedures, the basic quality of a training administration depends on how the individual is served, and on the sensitivity and understanding of his needs. Of course, this is fundamental in all education programmes, but particularly so in the case of study abroad.

What are some of the reasons? Those who go abroad for study are faced with a special set of unknowns and the potentials of frustration and perplexity are many. The best laid plans and programmes may have to undergo changes in the actuality of a foreign environment. Academic and other qualifications which may seem superior in a home setting may turn out to be 'unrecognized' or 'inadequate' elsewhere. What may seem to be a sound knowledge of a foreign language at home may not be so in the context of fast-moving lectures, seminars and field demonstrations. Different patterns of living and social life, without the support of friends, family and professional colleagues may cause perplexity and loneliness. Unforeseen difficulties may crop up when anticipated financial support may prove insufficient or when financial or other emergencies occur at home.

For these reasons, informed guidance and advice are essential before an individual faces selection or a competition. It is not enough that certain 'qualifications' are the only determining factors in the decisions of a selection committee. The main problem is, does the candidate know what he is in for? Has he had an opportunity to discuss whether training overseas is the best way to meet his needs? Is he aware of what is available closer to home, and whether it may not be more suitable? Is he aware of the necessary language skills and does he realize the special problems, academic, professional and social, he may face? Are his expectations of training programmes realistic in terms of his employment prospects? Only guidance of a high order will provide him with a basis on which he may judge

what he may expect and whether what is asked of him is well founded. It is essential in assuring a healthy balance between his individual purposes and the institutional objectives on which we have laid so great importance (see pages 23-24 above).

There are three broad categories of study-abroad programmes related to development, an understanding of which can help candidates and those who advise them. They are (a) programmes to provide individuals with qualifications in a particular field or profession, generally associated with obtaining a degree or diploma; (b) those intended to train individuals to perform a specific task on a project; (c) those which provide individuals already professionally qualified and in positions of responsibility with an opportunity to improve their effectiveness on the job or to solve a particular problem, by observations and consultations abroad.

Of these categories, the first—university oriented studies—is the most numerous and so engages the greatest attention of administrators. Many developing countries are becoming more selective in sponsoring degree studies far afield. They know that in most institutions the curriculum is based on local educational concerns and needs, which may be only partly relevant to the needs of their students. In consequence, degree programmes taken abroad are increasingly being focused for post-graduate studies, as undergraduate instruction becomes available closer to home.

Programmes to train individuals for work on a project can be more specifically oriented. In such cases, the trainee has been selected for his known competence in a particular profession or situation, and his programme defined in advance by the skills or knowledge to be acquired. If degree studies are part of his programme, they will be in a more specific framework. Most study-abroad programmes associated with international technical assistance projects are of this type, where the scope and more important *tempo* of the studies are determined by the requirements of the project itself.

The final type of programme aims to help those in responsible positions to update their knowledge and to assist them in solving particular professional problems. Generally, such programmes are made up of consultations and observations and visits to institutions. Frequently, in the desire to cover a great deal of territory, the programme may be overcharged and may not provide adequate opportunity for exchange of experience with colleagues abroad. This is an important element as it enables the grantee, on his return, to have built

up a set of professional contacts with whom he can correspond for mutual benefit.

Once a candidate is selected, the administering authorities must be assured not only that each individual's programme meets his needs, but that those engaged in facilitating it in foreign countries have the fullest possible understanding of the programme and of its objectives.

This is not always an easy task, as it requires of the home administration constant communication with the agencies (governmental, educational, etc.) in far off places, and an understanding of *their* procedures and ways of doing business. In consequence, the home administration must make sure that the individual, before his departure, has a full understanding of the role of the agencies charged with facilitating his studies while abroad.

2. Evaluation and follow-up

Those who have engaged in the actual administration of study-abroad programmes are aware of its complexities. This explains why, over the years, what comes after the study-abroad experience has tended to receive relatively less attention because of the immediate administrative pressures. Yet, from the point of view of the home country, the success of the training can only be measured when the individual has returned home and is at work.

The Unesco Committee were very explicit on the importance of evaluation and follow-up. They saw evaluation in two aspects—as a way of improving the quality of programmes in operation, and as a means of judging how far a programme was succeeding in reaching its objectives. Evaluation, in the first sense, meant constant monitoring of one's own procedures and methods—a 'built in' and continuing process. Evaluation to measure results depended on determining what criteria could be effective. The Committee recognized difficulties in developing standard criteria, but listed the following that had been used in certain evaluations of programmes: has the individual finished his prescribed study programme?; has he obtained the qualification or the degree he aimed at?; has he returned from his country of study?; is he employed in his field of specialization?; does he occupy a position of higher professional responsibility?

Follow-up, as defined by the Committee, covered activities to

enable the returned trainee to keep up to date in his field and 'to increase his ability to act as an effective agent in development'. The Committee recommended that former trainees be supplied with scientific and technical publications on most recent developments in their fields. Registers of former trainees should assist in communications with home institutions, enable individuals to associate in common work and keep them in touch with opportunities for employment.

3. Organizational arrangements

Much of the dispersion and *ad hoc* character of international training is due to a lack of continuing consultation between those charged with the planning and supervising of training-related activities at home, and those responsible for the actual administration of study-abroad programmes. How can there be more mutually supportive relations between those two elements? This is a constant problem, first because the planners have their own responsibilities and study-abroad administrations have their own complexities and urgencies. Both these factors, and the weight of bureaucratic communication understandably can inhibit the contribution which the planners must make if the administrators are to attain satisfactory results.

All agencies in the United Nations have, for many years, been organized so that their headquarters units responsible for substantive planning and the management of projects provide guidance to the administration training units. In some agencies, these relationships have been recently reinforced so as to improve the quality of training in all its aspects and to assure that it is more adequately planned and administered in terms of project objectives. The Unesco training administration has been strengthened by the establishment of an Interdepartmental Committee on International Training, so that all units in the Organization can exchange information on problems of mutual interest and develop organization-wide policies. The Division of Study and Training Abroad acts as the secretariat of this Committee, thus providing a closer link between the planning elements and training administration. In the FAO, the Division of Study and Training Abroad is not only responsible for the programming of individuals in co-operation with the departments responsible for particular fields and projects including evaluation and follow-up, but co-

ordinates all group training programmes sponsored by the departments. In addition, it is responsible for the orientation of experts assigned to the field, on the training aspects of their assignments. The Division of Human Resources of WHO is responsible for all training matters, planning and administration, and its regional offices are provided with training officers. Recently, the unit in the Pan-American Health Organization (of WHO) responsible for fellowship administration has taken on the added function of planning the organization's complete health manpower programme—thus placing administrative responsibilities in the perspective of complete manpower planning programmes. In the World Bank a special unit is responsible for seeing that the training element is adequately considered in the planning and implementation of all its projects.[1]

The importance of improving training administration in Member States has been recognized by Unesco. Visits from specialists in Member States have been made to Unesco to observe its administration, which have been supplemented by observation of other national training administrations. Reports have been solicited from Member States describing their international training administration, and advisory missions have been sent to Member States.

Some examples of national organizations which are geared to the total over-all training effort of a country are instructive. In Venezuela, for instance, some years ago, an office was established in the Ministry of Planning to co-ordinate the national and international training activities of all ministries as well as the training opportunities offered by foreign governments and institutions. The placing of such an office in the Ministry of Planning assures that its work is related to the total development planning machinery of the government.

In Colombia, the Institute of Educational Credit and Technical Training Abroad, (ICETEX) an autonomous body, is responsible for: the distribution of loans to students for studies *both* in Colombia and abroad; the centralization and distribution of all scholarships, (national and international) for third-level education; the administration of funds contributed by different institutions to finance the training and re-training of their staff; informing students about different possibilities for training at home and abroad; the co-ordination of the supply and demand of trained personnel in co-operation

1. For a description of the World Bank programme see Richard W. Van Wagenen, op. cit.

with other institutions in the country (Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs, National Department of Planning, etc.).[1]

Organizations similar to ICETEX have been set up in a number of other Latin American countries.

In some North African states, a fellowship office, generally located in the Ministry of Education (or Higher Education), administers all awards for study abroad, offered both by the home government and by foreign governments and organizations. These offices are also responsible for administration of government subsidies to students attending domestic institutions.

In some Asian countries, similar co-ordinating and administrative offices have been established. In Taiwan, for example, the Joint Technical Assistance Corporation, an autonomous body, administers training-abroad programmes for its own nationals and also receives large numbers of students from developing as well as from developed countries. The Thai Ministry of Planning and Development has a Training Branch where responsibilities are divided among the geographic areas in which Thai students are receiving training. It also evaluates the degree credentials of foreign colleges and universities, thus maintaining an up-to-date inventory of world-wide training facilities.

Such institutions also possess language training facilities, and co-operate with donor agencies in selection procedures, pre-departure counselling and supervision of students while abroad.

1. Claude Tibi, *Financial aspects of the student loan scheme in Colombia*, Paris, Unesco: IIEP, S.27/4, August 1971, mimeo.

Part Four

A blueprint

As a conclusion, we will plot out some of the functions and the structure of an administrative unit or office which can implement the tasks which have been considered. Obviously, in many countries, many of the elements described below are already in place and each country must determine the steps it wishes to take regarding the organization of its own training efforts at home and abroad. This 'blue print' may help in summarizing the factors to be borne in mind in reviewing what already exists or in making modifications.

1. Supportive elements

1. The office should be located in the ministry or department which can provide it with the most effective supply of information and guidance on the country's development programmes and training institutions—their objectives and needs.
2. There should be a training committee, made up of members from each ministry or department responsible for sectoral development, meeting at regular intervals. This committee should assure the formulation of general policies for training, both at home and abroad, and help co-ordinate domestic and international training programmes. It should also assure that the necessary day-to-day relationships are maintained between the training office and the departments concerned. It is desirable that such a committee be under the chairmanship of a ranking official in the nation's development or planning administration.

2. Functional elements

1. Information and research: the office should prepare and keep up-to-date inventories of domestic and foreign training resources, institutions and courses, to guide its own administration, to assist it in judging training offers from foreign sources and to provide the training committee with the necessary information for the development of policies and the determination of needs and priorities.
2. The office, in consultation with the committee, should define the criteria needed in negotiating with foreign donors of fellowships, to assure their most effective use.
3. The office should prepare regulations and procedures to define standards of selection of candidates for training awards and keep under constant review procedures for development of study programmes and communication with foreign administrations, as well as measures for the supervision of trainees while abroad.
4. The office should formulate and review the questions to be covered in the guidance of potential candidates including information on study facilities, social conditions, language factors and employment prospects on return.
5. The office should keep under constant review the organizations with whom it works for the programming, placement and supervision of those studying abroad, including procedures of communication.
6. The office should develop and review its activities for follow-up and evaluation (post-training interviews, lists of returned trainees, liaison with competent ministries or institutions for information on re-integration, employment, etc.).

The success of such an office depends, to a large degree, on its ability to obtain the best advice and information from domestic planning units and institutions, and from international experts and foreign agencies. This constant consultation assures the essential contribution on the planning and informational side.

However well a programme may be planned, its implementation requires attention to details as well as tactful communication with candidates, and an ability to communicate clearly and to make decisions without delay. This complex and detailed 'case work' requires supportive management to ensure efficient financial proce-

dures and payments, travel arrangements and prompt communications.

The matter of schedules and deadlines is of particular importance in study-abroad administration, as foreign administrators have their own time-tables and they, too, must deal with institutions over whose schedules they have no control. Alas, administrators working on a world-wide basis cannot depend on 'good will' because essential communications may not arrive on time.

Effective management also depends on high-quality clerical assistance—multilingual where needed. If the number of individual cases increases, clerical support must keep pace or bottlenecks and delays will frustrate the operation and individuals and institutions will suffer.

3. Conclusion

We have outlined some of the measures needed to assure that study abroad may advance more effectively the total education and training programme of a country. Many of the necessary elements are already in place in a number of countries. The problem in some areas is to reinforce the weak links in the chain; in others to build up new relationships or sources of information; in others to pull all the elements together into a more dynamically operating whole. The essential factor is to bring all the factors together so that they can mutually reinforce each other and thus to lessen the compartmentalization which has plagued so much of the study-abroad movement and inhibited its potential contribution to development.

This work of dynamic integration is one essential part in the picture. The other, of course, is the quality of instruction, the leadership and imagination of those providing it, and the abilities of the individuals who profit from the total effort.

If both these elements are combined, study abroad can make a greater contribution not only to national development, but to the 'educational change and adaptation' which, it has been suggested, is the main challenge facing educational planning today.

Appendix

The following five tables, selected from *Statistics of students abroad, 1962-68*, illustrate major trends in study abroad during the period under review.

TABLE 1. Foreign students enrolled by major region of study (Absolute numbers and in per cent)

Major region of study	1950		1955		1960		1965		1968	
	Absolute number	%	Absolute number	%	Absolute number	%	Absolute number	%	Absolute number	%
WORLD TOTAL	107 589	100.0	149 590	100.0	237 503	100.0	349 393	100.0	428 883	100.0
Africa	7 100	6.6	10 331	6.9	18 238	7.7	27 048	7.7	28 555	6.7
America, North	33 873	31.5	42 166	28.2	62 095	26.1	96 623	27.7	143 881	33.5
America, South	8 218	7.6	8 928	6.0	10 549	4.4	15 168	4.3	16 147	3.8
Asia	8 005	7.4	14 091	9.4	23 991	10.1	50 961	14.6	66 907	15.6
Europe and USSR	49 844	46.3	72 012	48.1	117 125	49.3	151 485	43.4	164 665	38.4
Oceania	549	0.5	2 062	1.4	5 505	2.3	8 108	2.3	8 728	2.0
(Arab states)	(8 155)	(7.6)	(11 443)	(7.6)	(21 210)	(8.9)	(40 338)	(11.5)	(47 602)	(11.1)
(Latin America)	(9 090)	(8.4)	(10 325)	(6.9)	(12 286)	(5.2)	(17 798)	(5.1)	(21 242)	(5.0)
Developed countries	85 713	79.7	118 480	79.2	188 131	79.2	262 947	75.3	324 763	75.7
Developing countries	21 876	20.3	31 110	20.8	49 372	20.8	86 446	24.7	101 120	24.3

1. Not including 11 countries of study: Brazil, China, Fiji Islands, German Democratic Republic, Jamaica, Democratic People's Republic of Korea, Peru, South Africa, Southern Rhodesia, Venezuela, Democratic Republic of Viet-Nam, for which data are not available.

SOURCE Tables 1-5 selected from Chapters 2 and 3 of *Statistics of students abroad, 1962-68*, Paris, Unesco, 1972.

TABLE 2. Students enrolled abroad in relation to total national students (at home and abroad)

Major region of origin	1962	1965	1966	1967	1968
WORLD TOTAL[1]					
Total students enrolled	12 768 185	16 939 010	18 870 512	20 345 808	21 908 526
of which: enrolled abroad	248 103	328 706	358 334	380 719	407 315
abroad as % of total	1.9	1.9	1.9	1.9	1.9
AFRICA					
Total national students	180 031	257 949	266 549	276 334	298 123
of which: enrolled abroad	31 412	41 329	43 123	44 616	45 666
abroad as % of total	17.4	16.0	16.2	16.1	15.3
AMERICA, NORTH					
Total national students	4 422 922	5 877 790	6 767 943	7 332 164	7 969 409
of which: enrolled abroad	33 376	42 402	47 875	52 882	57 069
abroad as % of total	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7
AMERICA, SOUTH					
Total national students	275 115	349 350	369 283	400 543	424 642
of which: enrolled abroad	8 513	11 834	12 759	14 091	14 694
abroad as % of total	3.1	3.4	3.5	3.5	3.5
ASIA					
Total national students	2 780 346	3 775 035	4 262 895	4 710 104	5 173 903
of which: enrolled abroad	104 215	143 865	156 683	164 786	178 087
abroad as % of total	3.7	3.8	3.7	3.5	3.4

(Continued)

TABLE 2. (*Continued*)

Major region of origin	1962	1965	1966	1967	1968
EUROPE AND USSR					
Total national students	4 984 875	6 513 198	7 020 356	7 431 352	7 832 376
of which: enrolled abroad	61 243	71 850	76 585	81 057	86 062
abroad as % of total	1.2	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1
OCEANIA					
Total national students	124 896	165 688	183 486	195 311	210 073
of which: enrolled abroad	2 321	2 832	3 357	3 620	3 840
abroad as % of total	1.9	1.7	1.6	1.9	1.8
(ARAB STATES)					
Total national students	(211 678)	(316 912)	(328 243)	(341 569)	(369 847)
of which: enrolled abroad	(38 259)	(60 020)	(64 170)	(67 389)	(71 818)
abroad as % of total	(18.1)	(18.9)	(19.5)	(19.7)	(19.4)
(LATIN AMERICA)					
Total national students	(434 686)	(572 958)	(609 859)	(667 137)	(728 578)
of which: enrolled abroad	(20 816)	(26 440)	(29 847)	(34 596)	(35 994)
abroad as % of total	(4.8)	(4.6)	(4.9)	(5.2)	(4.9)
ORIGIN UNKNOWN					
Students enrolled abroad	7 063	14 594	17 952	19 667	21 897

1. For countries of study not included see footnote, Table 1.

TABLE 3. Student flows between developed and developing countries

Students enrolled	1962	1963	1964	1965	1966	1967	1968
Total students enrolled abroad[1]	266 118	299 534	328 175	349 393	379 678	403 369	428 883
Originating from developed countries	91 848	100 931	107 032	110 125	119 329	126 430	135 542
Enrolled in developed countries	83 151	90 531	95 187	98 188	107 077	113 507	120 554
Enrolled in developing countries	8 697	10 400	11 845	11 937	12 252	12 923	14 988
Originating from developing countries	167 207	189 684	209 858	224 674	242 397	257 272	271 444
Enrolled in developed countries	123 464	134 350	146 806	152 575	165 770	176 610	188 125
Enrolled in developing countries	43 743	55 334	63 052	72 099	76 627	80 662	83 319
Origin unknown	7 063	8 919	11 285	14 594	17 952	19 667	21 897
Total flows between developed and developing countries	132 161	144 750	158 651	164 512	178 022	189 533	203 113
Flows from developed towards developing countries	8 697	10 400	11 845	11 937	12 252	12 923	14 988
Flows from developing towards developed countries	123 464	134 350	146 806	152 575	165 770	176 610	188 125
Net result of flows	114 767	123 950	134 961	140 638	153 538	163 687	173 137

1. For countries of study not included see footnote, Table 1.

TABLE 4. Major host countries of foreign students

Country	Rank	Number of students	%[1]	%[2]
1962				
United States of America	1	64 705	24.3	1.5
Germany, Fed. Rep. of	2	24 177	9.1	7.2
France	3	23 089	8.7	8.2
USSR	4	14 400	5.4	0.5
United Kingdom	5	14 020	5.3	11.4
Austria	6	10 522	4.0	23.0
Argentina	7	10 105	3.8	5.2
United Arab Republic	8	9 307	3.5	7.1
Canada	9	8 518	3.2	6.0
Switzerland	10	8 200	3.1	31.9
Holy See	11	6 421	2.4	99.9
Australia	12	6 400	2.4	6.2
Philippines	13	5 395	2.0	1.5
Syria	14	5 088	1.9	24.8
Japan	15	4 896	1.8	0.6
1968				
United States of America	1	121 362	28.3	1.6
France	2	36 500	8.5	7.2
Germany, Fed. Rep. of	3	26 783	6.2	6.2
Lebanon	4	18 811	4.4	56.0
Canada	5	17 424	4.1	6.5
United Kingdom	6	16 154	3.8	7.3
USSR	7	16 100	3.8	0.4
United Arab Republic	8	16 008	3.7	8.9
Argentina	9	12 590	2.9	4.6
Philippines	10	11 300	2.6	1.7
Japan	11	10 031	2.3	0.7
Austria	12	8 874	2.1	17.9
Switzerland	13	8 858	2.1	23.2
Belgium	14	7 200	1.7	6.8
Australia	15	7 104	1.7	4.3

1. Per cent of world total of foreign students.
2. Per cent of total enrolment (national and foreign) of the country.

TABLE 5. Major countries of origin of students abroad

Country	Rank	Number of students	%[1]	%[2]
1962				
United States of America	1	12 536	4.7	0.3
China (Taiwan)	2	11 338	4.3	20.5
India	3	10 233	3.8	1.4
Germany, Fed. Rep. of	4	9 709	3.6	3.0
Greece	5	9 548	3.6	21.7
Iran	6	8 920	3.4	26.9
Canada	7	8 317	3.1	5.9
Jordan	8	8 156	3.1	85.3
Italy	9	6 351	2.4	2.8
Peru	10	5 721	2.1	...
France	11	5 677	2.1	2.1
Malaysia	12	5 524	2.1	37.3
Palestine (Refugees)	13	5 500	2.1	100.0
United Kingdom	14	5 500	2.1	4.8
Korea, Republic of	15	5 304	2.0	4.0
1968				
China (Taiwan)	1	21 832	5.1	13.5
Jordan	2	21 552	5.0	84.2
United States of America	3	20 489	4.8	0.3
Canada	4	15 061	3.5	5.6
India	5	13 646	3.2	0.9
Syria	6	12 121	2.8	30.0
Iran	7	11 740	2.7	16.8
Palestine (Refugees)	8	10 593	2.5	100.0
United Kingdom	9	10 480	2.4	4.9
Germany, Fed. Rep. of	10	10 077	2.3	2.4
Greece	11	9 784	2.3	10.8
Hong Kong	12	9 436	2.2	40.2
Korea, Republic of	13	9 283	2.2	5.1
France	14	8 991	2.1	1.8
Italy	15	8 962	2.1	2.1

1. Per cent of world total of students abroad.
2. Per cent of total national students (at home and abroad) of the country.

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Published by N.V. Martinus Nijhoff, The Hague, 1973
Managing educational costs by Philip H. Coombs and Jacques Hallak
Published by Oxford University Press, New York, London and Toronto, 1972
Quantitative methods of educational planning by Héctor Correa
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The book

Criticisms of existing study-abroad programmes have led to re-thinking about their role in development. To combat such problems as the 'brain drain' and the fragmentation of effort, this monograph makes clear that study abroad must become closely related to specific goals and must be seen as an integral part of general and educational development.

The author

William D. Carter was in charge of the Exchange of Persons Service of Unesco from 1947 to 1962 and until 1965 was Director of the Department of International Exchanges. Since his retirement he has worked as a consultant in international affairs and training.

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